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ABSTRACT

This collection of annotated bibliographies covers studies in teaching loads of English teachers, written communication, language skills and usage in written composition, language arts, listening, bases of research in media study, reading, individualized and ability-grouping approaches to reading, achievement in individualized reading, and comparisons of individualized and ability-grouping approaches as to reading achievement. A discussion of some of the complexities involved in determining appropriate teaching loads in English and suggestions for future research on teaching loads are included with the bibliography on English teaching loads. (DD)

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Bibliographies of Research in the Teaching of English

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Bibliography

READING: INDIVIDUALIZED AND ABILITY-GROUPING APPROACHES

Compiled by Patrick Groff

for the Committee on Research of the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Comparisons of Individualized (IR) and Ability-Grouping (AG) Approaches as to Reading Achievement

Acinapuro, Philip J. A Comparative Study of the Results of Two Reading Programs. Doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959.
Three IR classes were compared with three AG classes in grades 4, 5, and 6. There were found statistically significant differences favoring the IR groups in silent and oral reading.

Adams, Phyliss S. An Investigation of an Individualized Reading Program and a Modified Basal Reading Program in First Grade. Ed.D. dissertation, University of Denver, 1962.
The author studied 84 children under IR and 88 under AG for 102 days of teaching. No significant differences were found between the boys of the two groups in word recognition and in auditory and visual discrimination abilities. The differences between the girls in the two groups in these two reading skills were significant and favored the IR group. No significant differences in comprehension were found between boys or girls of the two groups. The girls in the IR group had significantly higher reading readiness test scores.

Anderson, Irving H., et al. "The Relationship between Reading Achievement and Method of Teaching Reading," University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin, 27 (April, 1956), 104-108.
Reports AG pupils gained more reading ability earlier than IR pupils. IR pupils caught up with AG pupils in the sixth grade.

Anderson, Will D. An Experimental Study of Free Reading Versus Directed Reading. Graduate thesis, University of Chicago, 1930.
Found in grades 7 and 8 that the difference in reading achievement in the two groups to be very small. "Free reading" was more effective for improving rate and comprehension; "directed reading" was better for interpreting sentence meaning.

Aronow, Miriam S. "Study of the Effect of Individualized Reading on Children's Reading Test Scores," Reading Teacher, 15(November, 1961), 86-91.
Compared all the children in city of New York with 351 using IR in that city. At beginning of study (third grade) there were no significant differences in two groups. By time they reached the sixth grade there were significant differences in favor of IR group.

Baker, Julaine E. A Modified Individualized Reading Program for Superior Second Grade Children. Master's thesis, Drake University, 1961.
In this study 11 pupils were under IR, and 11 were under AG. After 9 months the two groups had the same gains in reading.

Bailey, Auline L. A Comparative Study of the Grouping Method of Teaching Reading with the Individualized Method. Master's thesis, Central Missouri State College, 1961.
This study compared the gains over a school year of 22 pupils in the fifth grade under IR with 20 pupils under AG. The differences in reading gains between the two groups were significant and in favor of the IR group.

Boney, C. DeWitt. "Basal Readers," Elementary English, 15 (April, 1938), 133-137.
Superintendent of schools reported that in his schools using IR, standardized test scores were equal to or above those using basal program. Median score for the third grade was 4.1. Says five school districts reported to him that it was possible to meet "traditional standards" without basal readers in the middle grades.

Boney, C. DeWitt, and Leman, Edna. "Individuality in Beginning Reading," Education, 59 (September, 1938), 17-20.
Reported "fair success" with IR. Concluded that children who read from basal readers do not grow into better readers than those who gained their beginning reading experience from a variety of easy books that had a greater number of words. Report of a superintendent of schools.

Bohnhorst, Ben A., and Sellars, Sophia. "Individualized Reading vs. Textbook Instruction," Elementary English, 36 (March, 1959), 185-190.
Five primary grades were first taught under AG for three months and then under IR for three months. They gained 3.4 months in reading growth under IR and 6.6 months under AG.

Boyd, Danny W. A Study to Determine the Differences in Gains in Reading Ability between Two Methods of Instruction in Language Arts. Ed.D. dissertation, North Texas State University, 1960.
Studied here were 240 seventh grade pupils. All had IR (SRA Reading Laboratory) and AG program. No significant differences in gains in reading were found between the two approaches.

Braidford, Margaret. A Comparison of Two Teaching Methods, Individual and Group, in the Teaching of Comprehension in Beginning Reading. Ed.D. dissertation, New York University, 1960.
Under each approach were 68 first graders. No significant differences in achievement were found between the two groups.

Carline, Donald E. An Investigation of Individualized Reading and Basal Text Reading through Pupil Achievement and Teacher Performance. Ed.D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1960.
Studied here were 72 elementary classes. The differences in achievement in reading of pupils in classes using IR and in those using AG were not significant.

Duker, Sam. "Effects of Introducing an Individualized Reading Approach by Student Teachers," Reading in Action, IRA Conference Proceedings, 1957, pp.59-62.
Five classes in grades 4, 5, and 6 gained, on the average, six months in reading under IR. Same number gained two months under AG.

Durrell, Donald D. "Individual Differences and Their Implications with Respect to Instruction in Reading," The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report. 36th Yearbook, NSSE, 1937, Chapter 11.
Describes how Laura Zirbes found in second grade that extensive individual reading with short comprehension exercises was superior to class instruction for children who were reading more than 60 words a minute. Group instruction was better for those below this rate.

Eickholz, Gerhard, and Barbe, Richard. "An Experiment in Vocabulary Development," Educational Research Bulletin, 40 (January, 1961), 1-7, 28.
This describes two seventh grade classes that used IR (a self-teaching and self-checking vocabulary device) and two classes that did not. The IR group made significantly greater gains in vocabulary development.

Field, Helen A. Extensive Individual Reading Versus Class Reading. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.
Found that "extensive individual reading and class reading procedures are about equally effective in developing general reading ability in second, third, and fourth grades." Studied 782 under "class reading" and 716 under IR.

Galotto, John V. The Comparative Effectiveness of Individual Reading Therapy and Group Reading Therapy. Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1961.
Ten pupils, aged 12 to 15, under IR and the same number under AG were studied here. No significant differences were found between the approaches in developing attitudes, personal adjustment, and better classroom behavior. Differences in reading achievement were significant and favored the AG approach.

Gordon, Ira J., and Clark, Christine H. "Experiment in Individualized Reading," Childhood Education, 38 (November, 1961), 112-113.
Studied two second grades, one under IR, the other under AG. Significant difference in reading growth favored the IR group.

Greenman, Ruth, and Kapilian, Sharon. "Individual Reading in Third and Fourth Grades," Elementary English, 36 (April, 1959), 234-237.
Studied 54 pupils. The gain in the IR groups was found to be "greater than that in similar groups taught by the group method." In the IR groups there was a "dramatic increase in comprehension."

Hilson, Helen H., and Thomas, Glenn G. "Individualized Reading in First Grade," Educational Leadership, 16 (February, 1959), 319-322.
One grade under IR compared with two under AG. The median score of the IR class at the end of study was the same as that of one AG group, and two months above the other AG group.

Izzo, Ruth K. A Comparison of Two Teaching Methods, Individualized and Group, in the Teaching of Word Identification in Beginning Reading. Ed.D. dissertation, New York University, 1960.
A report of individualized teaching given to 68 children, and of group teaching to the same number. No significant differences were found in the achievement of the two groups.

Jackson, Joseph. "A Reading-Center Approach within the Classroom," Journal of Educational Psychology, 47 (April, 1956), 213-222.
In six weeks 17 children in grade three needing remedial help achieved 4 months' growth under IR, and one month growth under AG. In same period, 17 such children in grade five gained 1.8 years' growth under a program that was three-fourths IR, while 1.0 year's growth was gained under AG.

Jones, Reginald L., and Van Why, Earl L. "The SRA Reading Laboratory and Fourth Grade Pupils," Journal of Developmental Reading, 5 (Autumn, 1961), 36-46.
Studied here were 52 pupils who had IR (SRA Reading Laboratory) and the same number under AG. No significant differences in gains between the two groups were noted.

Karr, Harold. "An Experiment with an Individualized Method of Teaching Reading," Reading Teacher, 7 (February, 1954), 174-177.
Reports in the third grade over a six months' period that pupils under AG made slightly greater gains in reading than pupils under IR.

McChristy, Antoinette. A Comparative Study to Determine Whether Self-Selective Reading Can Be Successfully Used at the Second Grade. Master's thesis, University of Southern California, 1957.
Four IR classes were compared with four under AG. IR classes gained 1.41 years in reading in one year. AG classes gained 1.14 years. Comprehension: 1.96 to 1.31; vocabulary: 1.26 to 1.09.

Mary Madeleine, Sister. The Relative Effectiveness of a Multilevel Reading Program at the Intermediate Grade Level. A summary of doctoral dissertation reprinted by Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, Illinois.
During school year 1948-49 the author compared the reading achievement of 2160 pupils under AG and 3600 pupils using the SRA Reading Laboratory (a form of IR). After the five month experiment, the pupils using SRA materials were found to be significantly superior in reading achievement to those under AG.

Noall, Mabel S. "Automatic Teaching of Reading Skills in High School," Journal of Education, 143 (February, 1961), 1-48.
Reported here was the use of IR (multi-level, self-scoring materials) with 114 eleventh and twelfth graders. Differences in gains in reading with a control group proved to be not significant.

Parker, Don H. SRA Reading Laboratory, Elementary Edition. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1958.
Author says 456 grade 7 students "showed a 112 per cent greater gain than a matched group using one-level materials. Experiments with fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students during the past three years show similar gains." The SRA Reading Laboratory is an IR approach.

Patterson, Agnes M. A Comparison of the Individualized Reading Approach with the Basal Reader Group Approach in the Teaching of Reading to a Selected Group of First Grade Children. M.Ed. project, Indiana (Pa.) State College, 1959.
In this study 14 pupils were under IR for one month with a similar-sized group under AG. Then for a month the approaches for both groups were reversed. "Comparing the advantages and disadvantages, the individualized approach appeared more desirable than the basal reading approach," reported the author.

Rothrock, Dayton G. "Heterogeneous, Homogeneous or Individual Approach to Reading?" Elementary English, 38 (April, 1961), 233-235.
Studied four classes in each approach in grades 4 and 5. Found homogeneous grouping approach brought significantly better gains in reading than either of the other approaches. No significant differences between IR and heterogeneous approaches.

San Diego County Reading Study Project Committee. Reading Study Project. San Diego: Department of Education, San Diego County, 1961. Mimeographed.
Found achievement in reading in 53 classes using IR and language experience approaches (an individualized writing and IR approach) was as great as in 14 classes using AG.

Sartain, Harry W. "The Roseville Experiment with Individualized Reading," Reading Teacher, 13 (April, 1960), 277-281.
Compared gains made by five classes under IR for three months with those of same number for same period under AG. Only one significant difference found. Pupils with lower IQ's made greater gains in word recognition under AG than under IR.

Smith, Charles A. "The Experience Method in Beginning Reading," Elementary School Journal, 38 (October, 1937), 96-106.
One class of first graders who used no basic books was compared with similar group that worked solely from basic books. Found that from November to June former group learned 301 words while latter group learned 270. Comparisons of other combinations of approaches were also described.

Smith, Lois, and Becker, Jane. "Self Selection with Intermediate Children," Reading Teacher, 14 (November, 1960), 83-88.
Compared the growth in reading under IR for twenty pupils with the growth for the city as a whole. No differences in two groups in intelligence. Study carried on from January of one year to May of the next. "Growth of Self selection class in reading skills from September to April (21 mo.) exceeded that for the city as a whole (15 mo.) by six months."

Sperber, Robert. "An Individualized Reading Program in a Third Grade," Individualized Reading Practices. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958, pp. 44-54.
Compared his class to ten other AG classes. His class read an average of 33 books; the AG classes read an average of 5.8.

Sperry, Florence. The Relationship between Reading and Achievement and Patterns of Reading Instruction in the Primary Grades. Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1961.
The writer's study showed conclusive gains in achievement for children under IR for three years as compared to those under AG for three years.

Walker, F. R. "Evaluation of three Methods of Teaching Reading, Seventh Grade," Journal of Educational Research, 54 (May, 1961), 356-358.
Studied two grade 7 classes that used a form of IR and one class that used the conventional approach. Found no significent differences among the approaches when total groups were compared. Found that the lower half of both IR classes achieved significantly better than did the lower half of the conventional class.

ADDENDA

Anderson, Eleanor P. A Comparative Study of Attainment in Reading Using Group and Individualized Methods of Instruction. Master's thesis, Furman University, 1946.

The third-graders in this study were under IR and AG for ten-week periods. The differences in reading gains between the two approaches was not significant.

Carlisle, Donetta J. A Study of Individualized and Basic Reading Methods of Instruction. Master's thesis, Brigham Young University, 1960.

There were 83 second and third graders in this study under IR and AG for six months. No significant differences in gains between the two approaches were found.

Bibliography

RESEARCH IN WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Compiled by **Robert L. Wright**

for the Committee on Research of the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Barch, Abram M., and Robert L. Wright, "The Background and Self-Picture of Good and Poor Writers," THE JOURNAL OF COMMUNICATION, VII (Winter, 1957), 192-3.

Questionnaires administered to 200 college freshmen deficient in writing revealed that nearly 40% had written fewer than 5 themes in high school, only 30% had taken eight semesters of high school English, and 41% showed a time gap between high school and college (1950). A later questionnaire (1956-1957) administered to good and poor writers found poor writers worrying about their performance in mechanical and graphic aspects of composition, good writers evidencing concern about the purpose of communication, having something to say, being specific, expressing relationships and forming concepts.

Several other results are listed.

Barch, Abram M., and Robert L. Wright, "A Comparison of Writing Characteristics and Verbal Ability of College Students," PAPERS OF THE MICHIGAN ACADEMY OF SCIENCE, ARTS AND LETTERS, XLIV (1959), 227-231.

This study compared reading scores of 122 freshmen and certain factors of the Flesch Reading Ease formula as demonstrated on compositions written during orientation testing, decided that the readability of student compositions is not an effective measure of the reading comprehension level of students.

Braddock, Richard, and Silvy Kraus, "An Experiement in Accelerating the Vocabulary Growth of Remedial Students," COLLEGE COMPOSITION AND COMMUNICATION, IX (December, 1958), 216-219.

Attempts to increase the vocabulary of groups of college students indicated so strong a relationship between mental ability and vocabulary development that the authors conclude no method will successfully accelerate vocabulary growth of the lowest 10% of entering college freshmen or the lower 50% of the average secondary school class.

Haugh, Oscar M., "Representative Research in the Communication Skills," EDUCATION, 72 (March, 1952), 470-480.

Brief description of a number of studies is given, including some in writing. A useful bibliography is attached.

Hunnicutt, C.W., and William J. Iverson, Research in the Three R's, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1958.

Three of 14 chapters deal with writing (handwriting, spelling, grammar, and composition). Research findings are adapted and abridged; helpful questions are suggested in the headnotes.

Kraus, Silvy, "A Comparison of Three Methods of Teaching Sentence Structure," ENGLISH JOURNAL, 46 (May, 1957), 275-281.

Of several methods of teaching sentence structure, the fastest seems to be one which emphasizes actual writing instead of drill on sentence structure, which emphasizes misunderstood items of sentence structure rather than a complete discussion of sentence structure.

The "thought approach" also resulted in gains in punctuation and usage.

Malmstrom, Jean, "Linguistic Atlas Findings versus Textbook Pronouncements on Current American Usage," ENGLISH JOURNAL, XLVIII (April, 1959), 191-198.

On the whole, textbooks do not reflect the scientific linguistics of the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada; are incomplete, inconsistent, and inaccurate in their treatment of usage matters.

McCrery, Lester Lyle, "An Experimental Study of Relationships Between Writing and Speaking Performance as Measured by College Grades and Student Rating Scales," THE JOURNAL OF COMMUNICATION, I (May, 1951), 40-44.

A study of 150 male college students compared college grades in speech and English and rating scales for speeches and papers, determined that "...in individual cases, performance in one area provided almost no basis for predicting performance in the other." By implication the idea of overlap between speaking and writing skills is attacked.

Peppard, Paula La Forge, and David F. Votaw, Sr., "Objective Methods of Detecting Needs for Remedial Work in Writing," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, 49 (March, 1956), 537-541.

This study indicated that the Effectiveness of Expression section of the Coop English Test is more valid and practicable in screening poor writers than are ratings of student compositions.

Sherwood, John C., "The Oregon Experiment: A Final Report," COLLEGE COMPOSITION AND COMMUNICATION, IX (February, 1958), 5-9.

Described is an experiment designed to enable a composition instructor to teach sections of 36 students in the same time needed to teach 25. One plan included a single regular class session, 15 minute tutorials for groups of 3-4 students (students criticized each other's papers), and independent weekly meetings. A second plan was much the same except that several sections met once a week for lectures.

Results found (1) little or no time was saved for the average instructor, (2) students welcomed conferences, liked to read other papers, but found student comments of limited use, (3) the plan worked best with good students. Sherwood suggests compromises growing out of the plan my be of benefit.

Wallace, Donald G., "A Comparative Analysis of Achievement in Three and Five Hour Sections of Freshman English," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, 49 (March, 1956), 505-513.

Students meeting five hours a week did not perform significantly better on essays or objective tests, about the same on assigned themes. In the three hour sections, necessary independent work called for greater student responsibility; those sections did show some reduction in class participation.

Womack, Thurston, "Teacher's Attitudes toward Current Usage," ENGLISH JOURNAL, XLVIII (April, 1959), 186-190.

NCTE members were asked to react to 50 "debatable items of usage" drawn from current textbooks and usage studies. In 339 responses, teachers generally rejected many usages widely regarded as acceptable. Womack points out that few English teachers have studied linguistic science or are familiar with the work of linguists.

Wright, Robert L., and Herbert Rubenstein, "Can College Students Recognize Good Writing?" (Michigan State) COLLEGE OF EDUCATION QUARTERLY, VI (Spring, 1960), 11-20.

Members of the MSU Communication Skills staff reached close agreement in the rating of five student papers written on the general subject, "Groundless Beliefs." The papers were then submitted for evaluation to 194 poor writers and 126 good ones. Both groups showed an unwillingness to give failing marks, though the rank order assigned by good writers was close to that of the faculty. Poor writers showed little ability to discriminate among compositions of varying merit. The authors suggest that effective composition teaching must be preceded by critical reading.

Wright, Robert L., "Factors of Readability in Compositions Written by Students of Low Ability," THE JOURNAL OF COMMUNICATION, VII (Spring, 1957), 37-38.

Fifty college freshmen ranking in the bottom decile on the ACE Phychological Examination and a locally developed objective test of English composition wrote papers at the beginning and end of a ten week term. Names were removed and papers were rated as "better," "worse," "about the same." For 56 papers on which there was complete rated agreement, Flesch's readability formula was applied. Better papers showed longer sentences (significant at 1% level) and fewer sentences (significant at 5% level). Because of the relationship between longer sentences and maturity, Wright suggests better writing may come regardless of instruction.

Bibliography

RESEARCH IN GRAMMAR AND USAGE -- WRITTEN COMPOSITION

Compiled by Ingrid M. Strom

for the Committee on Research of the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Studies selected for this bibliography refer to pupils at all age levels. They are classified under four headings:

I. Status studies that reveal information about the development of language skills at various age levels.

II. Studies that correlate knowledge of grammar with other language abilities.

III. Experimental studies investigating methods of teaching usage, formal grammar, the "new grammar," and written composition.

IV. Summaries and syntheses of research in language and composition.

Dates given in the margin suggest the history of research in these aspects of language, indicating how persistently some problems have been attacked, but indicating, too, that the nature of the language measured in these studies must be judged in the light of these dates. Marginal notes -- elementary, secondary, college -- are to guide readers to special interests.

* * *

I Knowledge of Language: (status studies)

Mastery of sentence structure increases with age . . . .

1950 summary

McCarthy, Dorothea, "Child Development: Language," in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 165-172, edited by Walter S. Monore, the Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.

The average length of response of children and adolescents is the best single index of language development, this index reflecting sex, occupational and intellectual group differences.

LaBrant, Lou L., "A Study of Certain Language Developments of Children in Grades Four to Twelve, Inclusive," Genetic Psychology Monographs 14:387-494, November, 1933.

1933

To determine whether the ability of children and adolescents to subordinate ideas in written composition increases with age, compositions written by 986 public school children enrolled in grades 4 through 12 in a Missouri school system were studied. It was found that the high school pupils used subordinate clauses in 36 per cent of their sentences, while adults used them in 46 per cent. Ability in subordinating ideas is a function of chronological age as well as of mental age. Increased maturity is important in attaining facility in the use of more involved sentence structure. Although the length of clauses remained fairly constant between the ages of 8 and 16, the writers expressed their ideas more precisely in subordinate clauses as they became older.

Bear, Meta V., "Children's Growth in the Use of Written Language," Elementary English Review, 16:312-319, December 1939.

A study of the written compositions of 7, 724 children and adolescents in grades 1 through 8 in the St. Louis public schools indicates that the number of sentences used by pupils in telling a story is an elemental factor in language growth. The average length of compositions increased from 3 sentences used by pupils in grade one to 10 sentences in grade eight. With age, the number of complex sentences increased. It was concluded that the use of complex sentences is the best single criterion for maturity of expression. Although few children used fragments or incomplete sentences, the percentage of "run-on" sentences increased until the fifth grade. In general, progress in overcoming incomplete and run-on sentences was erratic. Apparently, problems of sentence sense or sentence structure remains with the child from year-to-year as he seeks to express ideas of greater complexity. With complexity of thought goes complexity of sentence structure.

1939
elem.

Heider, F. K., and Heider, Grace M., "A Comparison of Sentence Structure of Deaf and Hearing Children," in Psychological Monographs, vol. 52, no. 1.

Eight hundred children in Pennsylvania provided data which showed that boys and girls use the complex sentence increasingly between the ages of 8 and 14. Through a comparison of the sentence structure in stories told by older deaf and hearing children, considerable indirect evidence was found that encouraging adolescents to listen to the sound of their own sentences and to those of others is an aid to improving sentence structure and variety of word order.

1940
elem.

Knowledge of formal grammar takes time, too . . . .

Macaulay, William J., "The Difficulty of Grammar," The British Journal of Educational Psychology 17:153-162, November 1947.

One thousand pupils from primary to senior secondary schools in Glasgow, Scotland, were asked to name the part of speech of one italicized word in each of 50 sentences. Results showed that the average pupil twelve years of age can be expected to recognize only common nouns and simple verbs. Of the 397 pupils on the junior secondary level, who had been taught grammar for at least 6 years, only 4 scored 50 per cent. At the end of the 3-year secondary school course, only 41.5 per cent of the pupils were able to score 50 per cent on all 5 parts of speech. The conclusion was reached that the age or maturity of the pupil is important for learning grammar. Formal grammar should not be taught to pupils under 14 years of age; at that age they begin to make appreciable improvement from year to year.

1947
elem. &
secon.
Scotland

It also takes intelligence . . . .

Meade, Richard A., "Who Can Learn Grammar?" The English Journal, 50:87-92, February, 1961.

"What students should study any formal grammar?" was the question Meade sought an answer to from an investigation involving 104 high school seniors in Virginia. Tests administered were the California Test of Mental Maturity,

1961
secondary

Advanced Form, the California Interest Inventory and a grammar test of 111 items compiled by the investigator from several standardized language tests.

Dividing the seniors into four quartiles according to their I.Q. scores, Meade found that only in the fourth or top intelligence quartile did a majority of the students make a creditable showing on the grammar test. Here 16 of the 26 students in the group answered correctly 75 per cent of the items. In the first quartile, only one person of 26 made a score above 75. Moade concluded that perhaps grammar should be taught to those students whose intelligence enables them to learn it with relative ease.

Changes in children's usage develop slowly, too . . . .

O'Rourke, L. J., Rebuilding the English Curriculum to Ensure Greater Mastery of Essentials, Psychological Institute, Washington, D.C., 1934, 98 pp.

1934 elem.

A nationwide survey revealed that at the end of the eighth grade the average pupil has mastered only 44.7 per cent of those usages which mark a person as being either educated or illiterate. It also revealed that teachers in the secondary school often give undue attention to the niceties and neglect those forms which mark a person as illiterate. When a pupil enters high school using grammar which is considered non-standard, the teacher should give him individual help to overcome his errors. She should not consider it a lowering of standards to give him such aid.

Differences in language ability persist at secondary level . . . .

Hewitt, E. A., "Performance in English Language at O Level of a Sample of University Students," The British Journal of Educational Psychology, 30:40-46 February, 1960.

1960 secon. British

Hewitt obtained test scores on the Cambridge Examination in the English Language at the 0 Level, for 1,423 boys and 882 girls from 197 secondary schools, who were subsequently admitted to universities in Great Britain. The evidence from his study suggested that a pupil's relative standing in English is reasonably stable over the first five years of secondary schooling. Although he found a difference in English ability between students enrolled in arts courses and those in science curricula on the university level, he concluded that this difference was not entirely due to the effects of specialization, for differences in language ability among the students could be seen as early as their fifteenth year.

But Schooling helps . . . .

Swenson, Esther J., and Caldwell, Charles G., "The Process of Communication in Children's Letters," Elementary School Journal, 45:79-88, October, 1948.

1948 elem. secon.

From the analysis of 680 letters written by children and adolescents in grades 4 through 12 in a Midwest community, an increasing differentiation of writing ability with more years of schooling was reported. It was also found that there were wide variations in achievement in writing abilities within each grade level and that variation with grades was fairly consistent from grade to grade.

Davis , Edith A., "Accuracy vs. Error as a Criterion in Children's Speech," Journal of Education Psychology, 30:365-371, May, 1939.

1939 elem.

Although some researchers have been pessimistic about the lack of success on the part of the school to eradicate errors which seem to be more a reflection of home and cultural backgrounds than of classroom practices, it is pointed out that the influence of the school is most marked in the less privileged groups, in which there is the greatest need for improvement.

Wheeler, Orville, "Study to Determine the Errors that Appear in Written Work of Rural and Urban Pupils in Certain Schools in Kentucky," Journal of Experimental Education, 8:385-398, June, 1940.

1940 elem. secon.

A study to determine the errors that appear in the written work of pupils in grades 3 to 12, inclusive, in certain rural and urban schools in Kentucky, to compare the errors in different grades, noting similarities and differences and to determine the persistency of errors arrived at the following results. The rural group averaged 13.4 errors per person and the urban group averaged 9.5 errors per person. The smallest number of errors occurred in Grade 12, the largest in Grade 8. Errors of highest frequency were failure to use periods at the end of sentences, unnecessary use of capital letters, failure to use needed commas, use of present tense for past, and errors in spelling. No one error was typical of any grade or group.

Knowledge of Formal grammar related to other abilities

Higher correlation with arithmetic than composition . . . .

1917

Borass, Julius, Formal English Grammar and the Practical Mastery of English. Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1917.

In state examinations in Minnesota in 1917, higher correlations were found between scores in grammar and those in such subjects as arithmetic, history, and geography than between those in grammar and those in composition; in the latter, the correlation was only .25.

Little relationship with sentence sense . . . .

Catherwood, Caterine, A Study of the Relationship Between a Knowledge of Rules and Ability to Correct Grammatical Errors and Between Identification of Sentences and Knowledge of Subject and Predicate, Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1932.

1932 secon.

Catherwood constructed a grammar test consisting of two parts. Part A was composed of sentences, each containing one faulty item of usage which the students were supposed to correct. Part B consisted of a blank page on which students were asked to state their reasons for making the corrections. After the tests were administered to more than 700 pupils in the seventh, ninth, and eleventh grades, it was found that the adolescents in the study were able to correct an average of 16.7 sentences, while they were able to remember or recognize an average of only 4.8 grammatical rules. In the seventh grade, the largest percentage able to give a grammatical reason for correction was 8. Thus, there appears to be little relationship between sentence sense and a knowledge of subject and predicate.

Little relationship with composition . . . .

Robinson, Nora, "The Relation Between Knowledge of English Grammar and Ability in English Composition," The British Journal of Educational Psychology, 30:184-186, Part II, June, 1960.

1960
British

That there is a low degree of relationship between knowledge of classificatory grammar and three aspects of composition was the conclusion of Robinson following a study of 145 pupils in the second and fourth years of four urban schools. Administered to the boys and girls were tests of general ability and of knowledge of the parts of speech and of sentence analysis. Then, the pupils were asked to write three essays. Coefficients of correlation were computed between the scores on the grammar tests and the grades on the composition.

Asker, William, "Does Knowledge of Grammar Function?" School and Society 17:107-111, January 27, 1923.

1923
secon.

In a study of 295 freshmen at the University of Washington, the conclusion was reached that there is a little relation between proficiency in grammar and ability in composition. The correlation between grammatical knowledge and ability to judge correctness of sentences was .23; between grammatical knowledge and ability in composition it was .37. He concluded that knowledge of formal grammar has little influence on the ability to judge the grammatical correctness of sentences or to write good compositions.

Or with usage . . . .

1916
elem.

Diebel, Amelia, and Sears, Isabel, "A Study of the Common Mistakes in Pupils' Oral English," Elementary School Journal, 17:44-45, September, 1916.

Since eighth grade pupils who had received instruction in formal grammar made more mistakes in the use of pronouns than did third grade children who, up to that point, had received no instruction, the investigator questioned the methods used in teaching the use of pronouns.

and punctuation . . . .

Butterfield, Claire J., The Effect of a Knowledge of Certain Grammatical Elements in the Acquisition and Retention of Punctuation Skills, Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, 1945.

1945
elem.

An experimental study, involving 831 sixth, seventh, and eighth grade children from 19 midwestern city school systems, was undertaken to discover how much effect the teaching of certain grammatical elements had on the ability to use certain selected punctuation skills which are said to be dependent on grammatical constructions. In the experimental classes, the "thinking" approach to teaching punctuation directly in connection with writing was used. In the control classes, instruction in grammar and punctuation was integrated to emphasize the functional relationships which are thought to exist between them. The investigator reported that grammatical knowledge did not appear to transfer into the area of punctuation skill to any appreciable extent, in spite of the fact that the two were supposed to be functionally related. Furthermore, significantly superior results in punctuation were obtained by the direct method of teaching punctuation skills in immediate connection with written composition.

Evans, James W., The Social Impertance and the Pupil Control of Certain Punctuation Variants, Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, 1939.

Lack of carry-over between knowledge of grammar and ability in punctuation was demonstrated in an experiment conducted with 831 pupils in 19 city school systems of the Middle West. In the experimental group, punctuation was taught as an aid to reading comprehension. In the control group, it was taught by means of grammatical rules and related drill exercises. Significantly superior gains in punctuation ability were made by pupils in the experimental group.

1931
elem.

Experimental studies

In teaching usage . . . .

Guiler, W. S., and Warner, P. C., "Individual Versus Group Instruction in Grammatical Usage," Journal of Educational Psychology, 24:140-151, February, 1933.

To discover the relative merits of individual and group instruction in grammatical usage, 300 pupils in grades nine and ten were divided into equated groups. In the experimental classes an individualized instruction technique was used; in the control classes a group instruction technique was employed; and in the check group no instruction was given. It was concluded that, although a great deal of improvement in grammatical usage was made by students in the first two groups, individual instruction based on individual diagnosis is much more effective than mass instruction in the remediation of short-comings in grammatical usage.

1933
secon.

Cutright, Prudence, "A Comparison of Methods of Securing Correct Language Usage," Elementary School Journal, 34:681-690, May, 1934.

The effectiveness of six methods in securing correct usage in Grades 4 5 and 6 was compared. The method of employing choice of constructions with both oral and written responses rated first in effectiveness. The Beta method, where practice on the incorrect form is done with knowledge of the correct, ranked third; writing the selected form in the blank ranked fourth; while proofreading of prepared paragraphs and games ranked fifth and sixth respectively. A combination of all methods was second in effectiveness.

1934
elem.

In teaching sentence structure . . . .

Frogner, Ellen, "Grammar and Thought Approaches in Improving Sentence Structure," School Review, 47:663-675, November, 1939.

With 47 pairs of students in the ninth grade and 60 pairs in the eleventh grade in the Minneapolis and Bemidji, Minnesota schools, a carefully controlled experimental study of the relative effectiveness of the thought and grammatical approaches in teaching sentence structure was carried out. Adolescents who approached the problem of sentence structure from the standpoint of clear, effective expression of thought made higher

scores on the tests of grammar and sentence structure than did those who used the grammatical approach. Furthermore, there was little difference between the two methods for superior students, except that certain pupils from the highest range of I.Q. scores profited more from the thought than from the grammar method. The thought method was definitely superior for all pupils with I.Q. scores below 105.

Does teaching formal grammar improve composition? . . . .

Ash, Irvin O., "An Experimental Evaluation of the Stylistic Approach in Teaching Written Composition in the Junior High School," Journal of Experimental Education, 4:54-62, September, 1935.

Does knowledge of technical grammar contribute to correctness of written expression and to the stylistic factors characteristic of a well-written composition? Participating in the study were pupils in three junior high schools in West Virginia. The experimental groups, stressing the style and content of composition, made more progress in sentence structure than did the control groups, emphasizing classificatory grammar. In all schools, pupils wrote compositions at the beginning and at the end of the study, as well as once each week. It was found that certain phases of grammar and punctuation improved in many respects without much direct attack.

1935
secon.

Clark, J. D., "A Four-Year Study of Freshman English," The English Journal (College Edition), 24:403-410, May, 1935.

Extending over a period of four years and including 1,700 freshmen at North Carolina State College, this experiment revealed that students doing an increased amount of reading, with stress given to the comprehension of thought structured into sentences and paragraphs, made gains in grammar, usage, and other language techniques superior to those made by students having only formal instruction in grammar. In both the control and experimental groups, students wrote weekly themes of 300 to 400 words in length.

1935
college

Bagley, Dorothy, "A Critical Study of Objective Estimates in the Teaching of English," British Journal of Educational Psychology, 7:57-71, February, 138-155, June, 1937.

1937
British

Boys who studied only literature for 33 weeks wrote better and more accurate compositions than did boys who studied only classificatory grammar for the same length of time.

Is the "new grammar" effective in improving writing?

Schuster, Edgar, H., "How Good is the New Grammar?" The English Journal, 50: 392-397, September, 1961.

1961
secon.

In an experiment which involved students in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades and which utilized three experimental groups and one control group Schuster found objective evidence supporting the generalizations that all students may be reached through the structural approach, which is more pleasant and interesting than traditional grammar, and that the change in writing ability is relatively small for all classes. Schuster suggests

that writing will be improved little by the study of grammar as a separate discipline, whether structural or traditional.

Suggs, Lena Reddick, "Structural Grammar Versus Traditional Grammar in Influencing Writing," The English Journal, 50:174-178, March, 1961

961
econ.

To compare the effectiveness of the structural and the traditional approaches to teaching the structure of the English language, Suggs set up an experimental group studying Roberts' Patterns of English and a control group studying traditional grammar for a period of thirteen weeks. The results obtained indicated that instruction according to the principles of linguistic science is superior to traditional grammar in its practical application to writing.

Kelly, Chenault, and Richards, Bertrand, "Grammar Is Not a Purple Turtle," The English Journal, 48:199-205, 212, April, 1959.

959
econ.

An experiment on the secondary level in which pupils were encouraged to master language as a tool for expression and communication by discovering for themselves concepts, rules, principles, or generalizations about sentence forms.

Does theme-a-week requirement improve writing?

Heys, Frank, Jr., Report of Experiment in Teaching Composition, Department of English, Lincoln-Sudbury Regional High School, Massachusetts, 10.pp. (Also reported in the The English Leaflet, 59.28-31, Fall, 1960.)

960
econ.

To test the hypothesis that a theme a week should be required of all students, Heys selected two eleventh grade classes for an experimental study in which one class followed a "traditional" program including some writing each week, with formal compositions and conferences on the papers every other week, and in which the other class was excused from practically all writing except that required on the mid-year and final examinations and was urged, instead, to read extensively and to discuss in class the style and construction of the books read. All students were tested in October with Form 2A of the STEP Writing Test and again in June with Form 2B of the same test. Both classes showed gains, not only on the STEP test but also on the compositions, and the gains for the two classes were roughly the same. During the following year, the experiment was repeated in eight classes in grades nine through twelve with substantially the same results.

SUMMARIES AND SYNTHESES:

Grammar Writing

Strom, Ingrid M., "Do Grammar Drills Help Writing Skills?" NEA Journal, 49: 25, December, 1960.

Outlining the significant studies in grammar and usage carried out during the last fifty years, Strom summarized the cumulative results with the statement that the evidence from research shows clearly and overwhelmingly that direct methods of instruction, focusing on writing activities and the structuring of ideas, are more efficient in teaching sentence structure, usage, punctuation, and other related factors that are such methods as nomenclature drill, diagram and rote memorization of rules.

Strom, Ingrid M., Research in Grammar and Usage and Its Implications for Teaching Writing, Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vo. 36, No. 5, Bloomington, September, 1960, pp. 23.

Searles, John R., and Carlsen, G. Robert, "Language, Grammar, and Composition," in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 454-470, American Education Research Assoc., Macmillan, New York, 1960.

A scholarly appraisal of the research in language, grammar, and composition was made by Searles and Carlsen who discussed the evidence as it related to the history of language, curriculum objectives, problems of instruction, and evaluation.

Evaluating Writing

Strickland, Ruth G., "Evaluating Children's Composition," Bibliog., Elementary English, 37:321-331, May, 1960.

Strickland summarized and evaluated the research pertaining to facets of evaluating children's writing, the methods of evaluation at different grade levels, the inseparability of the development of personality and of writing ability, the range of content and form found in original compositions, and the purposes and outcomes of evaluative procedures in elementary and secondary schools.

Frequency of Errors

Kraus, Silvy, Teaching of Written Composition in the Public Schools: A Summary of Research, Curriculum Bulletin, vol. 15, no. 190, School of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, 1959, 23 pp.

Summarizing the research related to the frequency and the seriousness of sentence-structure errors in writing, Kraus listed six problems of sentence structure which obstruct meaning: (1) the run-on sentence; (2) the comma splice; (3) the awkward sentence; (4) errors in subordination, coordination, and agreements; (5) misplaced modifiers; (6) dangling participles.

Bibliography

ESSENTIAL RESEARCH AND BASES OF RESEARCH IN MEDIA STUDY

Compiled by Neil Postman

for the Committee on Research of the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

1. Asheim, Lester (ed.). The Future of the Book. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955.

   A collection of speeches addressed to the general question of how technology has affected and will continue to affect the production, uses, and status of the book. Particularly illuminating are those talks which deal with the history of the book.

2. Editors of TV Guide. TV Guide Roundup. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1960.

   Within the past few years TV Guide has evolved into an important and widely read source of serious television criticism. This volume consists of carefully selected articles which originally appeared in the magazine.

3. Fischer, Edward. The Screen Arts: A Guide to Film and Television Appreciation. New York: Sheed and Ward, 1960.

   As its title suggests, this book provides readers with information, insights, and standards of judgment which will deepen their understanding of film and television as art forms. Particularly instructive are the author's analyses of specific movies and television programs.

4. Journal of the Academy of Arts and Sciences. Mass Culture and Mass Media. Boston: American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 1960.

   A collection of speeches and essays which attempt to assess the role of the mass media in shaping our political and aesthetic values. In general, the contributors refer little to "scientific research." Rather, they tend to draw on aesthetics, history, and logic in their efforts to explore the meaning of "mass culture."

5. Klapper, Joseph T. The Effects of Mass Communication. New York: Macmillan, 1960.

   An account of scientific studies on the impact of mass media: effects of crime and violence in the media; how adult programming affects children; the extent to which media shape attitudes and opinions, create apathy and passivity.

6. McLuhan, Marshall. Understanding Media. Report on Project in Understanding New Media. Prepared and Published by the National Association of Educational Broadcasters. Bloomington, Indiana, 1960.

7. Postman, Neil. Television and the Teaching of English. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1961.

   Sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of English and written under the supervision of the NCTE's Committee on the Study of Television, this monograph offers useful suggestions, as well as background material, to English teachers who wish to help their students respond with intelligence and satisfaction to television.

8. Schramm, Wilbur. Responsibility in Mass Communication. New York: Harper and Row, 1957.

   Probably this country's most prominent figure in media research, the author attempts to show how the media of mass communication both reflect and influence the attitudes of such institutions as government, business, and the church.

9. Seldes, Gilbert. The Public Arts. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1956.

   The author, a venerable, literate, and readable critic of "mass culture," evaluates the work of a melange of popular performers, including such as Edward R. Murrow, Jackie Gleason, Charlie Chaplin, and Jimmy Durante.

10. Wright, Charles. Mass Communication: A Sociological Perspective. New York: Random House, 1959.

    A careful examination of the mass media from the standpoint of a sociologist who, like Klapper and Schramm, insists that a medium of communication cannot be viewed in isolation from society's existing institutions, ideologies, and values.

Bibliography

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON RESEARCH IN THE LANGUAGE ARTS

Compiled by Margaret Early

for the Committee on Research of the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Reviews of research and bibliographies of specific investigations may be found in the following references:

ENCYCLOPEDIA OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, Chester W. Harris, ed., rev., 1960, Macmillan. ($25.)

Critical evaluation, synthesis, and interpretation of pertinent research in education with bibliographies. Topics related to the language arts:

Communication Arts pp. 306-312 (Margaret Early)
English (Language, Grammar, and Composition) pp. 454-470 (John R. Searles and G. Robert Carlsen)
English (Literature) pp 470-478 (Robert C. Pooley)
English as a Second Language pp. 478-482 (Joseph Kavetsky and J. Cayce Morrison)
Handwriting pp. 616-624 (Theodore L. Harris)
Reading pp. 1086-1135 (William S. Gray)
Spelling pp. 1337-1354 (Ernest Horn)
Speech pp. 1330-1337 (Franklin H. Knower

REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, published by American Educational Research Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W , Washington 6, D. C.

Every third year the April issue is devoted to "Language Arts and the Fine Arts." Chapters on written composition, reading, speaking, listening, etc., present very brief comments on research published in the three-year period. Extensive bibliographies make this a useful tool. Beginning with the most recent issue, April, 1961, edited by Theodore Clymer, the series at three-year intervals included: April, 1958; April, 1955; April, 1952, etc.

WHAT RESEARCH SAYS TO THE TEACHER. A series of bulletins issued jointly by the Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association of the N.E.A. (1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D.C.). 25 cents per single copy.

The bulletins in this series directed to the classroom teacher do not, in general, quote research studies directly but interpret results of research and accepted theory. Bibliographies containing research references are appended, however, in each case, and a section describing needed research is a feature of these bulletins. Those directly concerned with the language arts are:

No. 1 Teaching Reading (Arthur Gates) 1953
No. 3 Teaching Spelling (Ernest Horn) 1953
No. 4 Teaching Handwriting (Frank N. Freeman) 1954
No. 11 Reading in the High School (Leo C. Fay) 1956
No. 18 Teaching Composition (Alvina T. Burrows) 1959

Strom, Ingrid, "Summary of Investigations Relating to English Arts in Secondary Education," English Journal 49:119-130 (February, 1960); and 50:111-125 (February, 1961).

The first summary covered the year 1958-59; a second summary reports on the period 1959-60. These are critical evaluations of published research in all phases of the language arts. The extensive bibliography accompanying each article includes studies that are generally available.

Staiger, Ralph C. and Marion Anderson, "Language Arts Research, 1956," Elementary English, 34:245-253 (April, 1957).

Staiger, Ralph C. "Language Arts Research, 1958," Elementary English 36:502-510 (November, 1959).

_____"Language Arts Research, 1960," Elementary English, 38:175-186 (March, 1961).

This is an annual listing of research studies completed, or underway, during the year. Research on the master's, doctoral, and post-doctoral levels are listed alphabetically by author in 18 categories. Information was obtained from questionnaires sent to persons in the field who are directing research. Materials which might be catalogued in books and periodicals are not included in this list. These bibliographies, which will continue to appear annually under the joint sponsorship of the Committee on Research of the NCTE and the National Conference on Research in English, are useful in two ways. First, examination of the list reveals trends in research investigations at least on the superficial level revealed by titles and topics. Secondly, the list provides leads to studies that may not be listed elsewhere. Inquiries about specific studies should be addressed to the author or to the faculty sponsor, whose name is also given.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON RESEARCH IN ENGLISH monographs, published by the National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

Monographs sponsored by this organization and published by NCTE have appeared periodically over the last thirty years. The four which are now in print all contain bibliographies of research studies. The bulletin in process at this writing is Research Techniques in the Language Arts, edited by Carlton M. Singleton. Others now

available are:

Interrelationships Among the Language Arts (A. Sterl Artley, ed.) (65 cents)
What We Know about High School Reading (M. Agnella Gunn, ed.) (50 cents)
Critical Reading (E. Elona Sochor, ed.) (60 cents)
Children's Writing (Alvina T. Burrows, ed.) ($1.00)

Comparable to the NEA What Research Says bulletins, listed above, the NCRE publications are more extensive in coverage and more scholarly in intent. They provide the student with critical evaluation and review of specific research, as well as commentary upon more general considerations.

RESEARCH STUDIES IN EDUCATION, published annually by Phi Delta Kappa, Eighth Street and Union Avenue, Bloomington, Indiana. 1953 -- Each copy, $3.50

This is a subject and author index of doctoral dissertations, reports, and field studies either completed during the year or in progress at educational institutions. Indexed by topics which include: reading, literature, English in high school, English in universities, teaching methods, etc. This is a tool for the researcher who can trace unpublished studies, using inter-library loans or the University Microfilms at Ann Arbor. Of themselves, however, the Studies are of value as a general index of all kinds of studies underway. For the researcher in language arts much the same service is provided by Staiger's listing in Elementary English described above. The Phi Delta Kappa Studies go back to 1953.

RESEARCH IN THE THREE R'S, edited by C. W. Hunnicutt and William J. Iverson, Harper and Brothers, 1958. 446 pages.

This is a collection of articles selected for the importance of their findings to reading and language arts (the third R is arithmetic), and given with slight editorial comment on the nature of their contribution. They appear either full-length or somewhat condensed, but the design of the research is usually clearly evident to those who would duplicate the studies or adapt the designs to other problems.

RESEARCH HELPS IN TEACHING THE LANGUAGE ARTS, prepared for ASCD by Harold G. Shane. Available from Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. 80 pages, 1955. Also available from the National Council of Teachers of English, 508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois, for $1.00.

This pamphlet is the result of a project which began with asking classroom teachers to indicate the specific questions they would like to see answered by summaries of research. The questions grouped into nine categories and experts were asked to name research studies bearing upon each

basic concern. Of the 817 studies suggested, as many as possible were abstracted and used as the basis for this brief report. Not all the references in the nine bibliographies are research studies; some are general articles. References for reading number 191; handwriting, 38; creative written expression, 24; spelling, 52; grammar, 15; literature, 29; listening, 30; foreign languages, 17; oral English, 14.

Bibliography

RESEARCH IN READING

Compiled by Constance McCullough

for the Committee on Research of the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

A sense of history and the direction in the field may be obtained by consultation of these references:

Smith, Nila B. AMERICAN READING INSTRUCTION, Silver Burdett, 1934.

This book describes the development of reading instruction from Colonial times to the "present" of the 1930's. It is essential background for a person who does not wish to be caught in the act of fostering as a new, promising idea something wisely discarded years ago.

Smith, Nila B. "What Have We Accomplished in Reading?" ELEMENTARY ENGLISH 38:141-150 (March, 1961). Reprint available from the NCTE for $.25.

Beginning with 1910, the author describes the accomplishments of the scientific study of reading instruction up to 1960. This article extends the information from the previous book. It puts current concerns into historical perspective.

Russell, David H. "Reading Research That Makes a Difference," ELEMENTARY ENGLISH 38:74-78 (February, 1961).

Ten studies which influenced practice in their time and which have provided guideposts in the development of sound instructional practices in reading are briefly described. Some of these are books presenting a point of view rather than single research studies.

Limited reviews of the great body of knowledge now available through research efforts in the field of reading are to be found in the following references:

ENCYCLOPAEDIA OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, Macmillan, revised 1960, pages 1086-1135.

William S. Gray summarizes the key findings of research in reading. This series of articles by Gray is the result of many years of concentrated effort on his part to compile and evaluate research in this area. Careful study of these articles and use of the appended bibliographies will be rewarding to a person seeking authentic information.

WHAT RESEARCH SAYS TO THE TEACHER: A series of bulletins issued jointly by the Department of Classroom Teachers and the American Educational Research Association, and sold by the National Educational Association for $.25 a copy.

Gates, Arthur I. TEACHING READING, N.E.A., 1953.

This bulletin, though brief, deserves reading and rereading for the wisdom of its observations. A bibliography of 16 research studies and 17 general references is appended. Needed studies are suggested.

Fay, Leo C. READING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL, N.E.A., 1956.

This bulletin distills the most important considerations in teaching reading and administering reading programs at the secondary level. The bibliography contains 15 research references and 17 general references. A page describing needed research concludes the article.

WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT HIGH SCHOOL READING, N.C.T.E., 1957-58.

This is a series of five articles produced by a committee of the National Conference on Research in English and initially published in the ENGLISH JOURNAL during 1957-58. It is available as a booklet for 50¢ from the National Council of Teachers of English. Extensive bibliographies support the articles on successful reading programs, practices in teaching reading, the high school student, and materials.

A consensus of opinion regarding modern practice, in view of research evidence, has been periodically available through volumes published every twelve years (1924, 1936, 1948) by the National Society for the Study of Education. The following is the most recent volume:

Witty, Paul A., ed. DEVELOPMENT IN AND THROUGH READING, Part II, Sixtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, University of Chicago Press, 1961.

This volume deals with the reading program and reading practices at all educational levels. Previous volumes in the series offer information which continues to be useful.

Some classic research studies are difficult to locate because of their appearance in magazines to which many research workers today do not have easy access. An answer to this problem lies in the following:

Hunnicut, C. W., and Iverson, William J. RESEARCH IN THE THREE R'S, Harper and Brothers, 1958.

The articles are selected for the importance of their findings to the field and are given with slight editorial comment on the nature of their contribution. They appear either full-length or somewhat condensed, but the design of the research is usually clearly evident to those who would duplicate the studies or adapt the designs to other problems.

While it is gratifying to see the immediate results of what we do, often long-term results are more significant and reveal the real damage or benefit. The following studies are examples of the long-term types.

Carter, Lowell B. "The Effect of Early School Entrance on the Scholastic Achievement of Elementary School Children in the Austin Public Schools," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH 50:91-103 (October, 1956).

This study used school records over a period of six years. Such data lie in many school files, potentially eloquent but speechless, awaiting investigation.

Safford, Alton L. "Evaluation of an Individualized Reading Program," THE READING TEACHER 13:266-270 (April, 1960).

This study, similarly, was conducted on the basis of school records routinely kept. Of course, findings from such studies are limited to what routinely kept records can reveal. But in the jigsaw puzzle of the truth, they provide an important piece of evidence.

Sparks, Paul E., and Fay, Leo C. "An Evaluation of Two Methods of Teaching Reading," ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL 57:386-390 (April, 1957).

The study followed the effects of a separate phonics program as compared with a basal reader program over a period of four years. It supports the view that studies of one or two years' duration are misleading in regard to the long-term effects of separate phonics programs. The design of this study is comparative. It is an example of ways in which groups to be compared are matched.

Short-term studies have value, too. Here are some of this type:

Bernstein, Margery R. "Relationship Between Interest and Reading Comprehension," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH 49:283-288 (December, 1955).

In this study high school students were asked to read two passages especially selected and designed to present contrasts of great and little interest. Particularly interesting to the research worker are the ways in which the author attempted to control every aspect of the passages except interest and the way in which she measured comprehension and the other effects of interest. Schools attempting to achieve better selection of textbooks for particular groups of students can benefit from a study of this design.

Barbe, Walter, and Waterhouse, Tina S. "An Experimental Program in Reading," ELEMENTARY ENGLISH 33:102-104 (February, 1956).

This action study concerned inter-class grouping of fourth, fifth, and sixth graders in one school. It is worthy of note because of the care with which the reading level of each child was determined before grouping took place. (The usual determination of reading level by total score on a standardized test yields a heterogeneous group.) Since it was not a comparative study and since measurements of results were confined to standardized test results and opinions, it does not settle the question of the relative value of inter-class grouping, but it does show in a limited way "what happened."

Spache, George D. "Personality Patterns of Retarded Readers," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH 50:461-469 (February, 1957).

This study constitutes a detailed study of the results of a test to determine the personality types associated with reading failure. It is a model of this type of analysis and has considerable meaning to the teacher dealing with retarded readers.

Intensive study of a few students sometimes yields important information for the many:

Staiger, Ralph C. "Certain Language Factors in the Readability of Primary Reading Textbooks," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH 48:589-96 (April, 1955).

Fifteen third grade pupils read aloud at sight from primary basal reading material, and forty-four language factors were studied as possibly affecting the difficulty of the reading.

Robinson, Helen M. WHY PUPILS FAIL IN READING. University of Chicago Press, 1946.

This is a classic of its kind - a study of thirty bright retarded readers, which engaged the work of a number of specialists in the analysis of possible causal factors. While most research workers could not hope to duplicate a study such as this, examination of its methods should improve the quality of whatever they can do.

Gray, William Scott, and Rogers, Bernice. MATURITY IN READING: ITS NATURE AND APPRAISAL. University of Chicago Press, 1956.

In this extensive study of adult readers, the authors used a population sampling method. A portion of the study describes the techniques by which special case studies were made of mature readers, through an interview technique. It is this portion for which the monograph was chosen for inclusion here.

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RESEARCH IN LISTENING

Compiled by Joseph Mersand

for the Committee on Research of the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

I. BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Anderson, Harold A. A Bibliography on the Teaching of Listening (145 items). The University of Chicago (1950).

Nichols, Ralph. Bibliography on Listening: Background, Research, Teaching (136 items). The University of Minnesota (1953).

Seeger, Ruth. The Teaching of Listening (200 items). Curriculum Division, Ohio State University (1954).

Duker, Sam. Selected Bibliography on the Teaching of Listening (255 items). Brooklyn College (1955).

Additional Bibliographies in the chapters on Listening in the Review of Educational Research, April, 1955; April, 1958; April, 1961.

II. UNPUBLISHED DOCTORAL DISSERTATIONS

Some of the basic research has appeared in these dissertations, many of which have been written by the leaders in the field.

Armstrong, Hubert C. The Relationship of the Auditory and Visual Vocabularies of Children. Doctor's thesis. Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1953. 148 pp. Abstract: Dissertation Abstracts 13: 716; No. 5, 1953.

Brown, Don. Auding as the Primary Language Ability. Doctor's thesis. Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1954. 265 pp.

Caffrey, John. Auding Ability as a Function of Certain Psychometric Variables. Doctor's thesis. Berkeley: University of California, 1953. 169 pp.

Carlton, Robert L. An Experimental Investigation of the Relationship between Personal Value and Word Intelligibility. Doctor's thesis. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1953. 111 pp.

Dow, W. The Development of Listening Comprehension Tests for Michigan State College Freshmen. Doctor's thesis. East Lansing: Michigan State College, 1952. 265 pp. Abstract: Dissertation Abstracts 13: 268-69; No. 2, 1953.

Gauger, Paul W. The Effect of Gesture and the Presence or Absence of the Speaker on the Listening Comprehension of Eleventh and Twelfth Grade High School Pupils. Doctor's thesis. Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1951. 150 pp.

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Goldstein, Bernard J. The Comprehension of Poetry from Recordings. Doctor's thesis. New York: Columbia University, 1952. 111 pp. Abstract: Dissertation Abstracts 12: 434-35; No. 4, 1952.

Hall, Robert O. An Exploratory Study of Listening of Fifth Grade Pupils. Doctor's thesis. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1954. 227 pp.

Hildreth, Richard A. An Experimental Study of Audiences' Ability to Distinguish between Sincere and Insincere Speeches. Doctor's thesis. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1953. 112 pp.

Karraker, Mary E. An Evaluation of the Influence of Interest and Set on Listening Effectiveness in the Basic Communications Class. Doctor's thesis. Denver: University of Denver, 1951. 217 pp.

Rankin, Paul T. The Measurement of the Ability to Understand Spoken Language. Doctor's thesis. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1926. 501 pp. Abstract: Dissertation Abstracts 12: 847-48; No. 6, 1952.

Stromer, Walter F. An Investigation into Some of the Relations between Reading, Listening, and Intelligence. Doctor's thesis. Denver: University of Denver, 1952. 105 pp.

Nichols, Ralph G. Factors Accounting for Differences in Comprehension of Materials Presented Orally in the Classroom. Doctor's thesis. Iowa City: State University of Iowa, 1948.

Blewett, Thomas T. An Experiment in the Measurement of Listening at the College Level. Doctor's thesis. Columbia: University of Missouri, 1945.

Brown, James Isaac. The Construction of a Diagnostic Test of Listening Comprehension. Doctor's thesis. Boulder: University of Colorado, 1949.

Cartier, F. A., Jr. An Experimental Study of the Effect of 'Human Interest' on Listenability. Doctor's thesis. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1951.

Carver, Merton E. A Study of Conditions Influencing the Relative Effectiveness of Visual and Auditory Presentations. Doctor's thesis. Cambridge: Harvard University, 1934.

II. RESEARCH STUDIES IN PERIODICALS

Although several hundred articles on the subject of listening have appeared in educational and popular periodicals, very few of them are discussions of research. Many of them deal with individual experiences in elementary, high school, or college classrooms, and are based on limited experiences. Of the articles which can be termed research articles, some of the most interesting for our purposes are summarized in this section.

III. RESEARCH STUDIES IN PERIODICALS (continued)

Brown, James I. "A Comparison of Listening and Reading Ability," College English, 10 (November, 1948), 105-107.

Brown used as a listening test the reading test (Part V) from the Purdue Placement Test in English for 180 first quarter communication students. There is a definite, though low, positive correlation between reading and listening ability.

Brown, James I. "The Objective Measurement of Listening Ability," The Journal of Communication, 1 (May, 1951), 44-48.

Brown devised ten subtests of factors in listening. Some dealt with attitudes; some with receptive listening skills; some with reflective listening skills. Among the latter subtests are: a) using contextual clues to determine word meaning, b) using transitional elements as aids in structuralizing a speech, c) how effectively the listener grasped central ideas, d) drew inferences, e) judged the relevancy of certain lecture portions. In reflective skill, Brown found that the adult group did better than the high school group.

Erickson, C. I., and King, Irving. "A Comparison of Visual and Oral Presentation of Lessons in the Case of Pupils from the Third to the Ninth Grades," School and Society, VI (August, 1917), 146-148.

Oral presentations gave the better results in this age group. Mimeographed questions were distributed after the presentations. An old study, but one that shows how far back interest in listening goes.

Kramar, E. J. J., and Lewis, T. R. "Comparison of Visual and Nonvisual Listening," Journal of Communication, 1 (November, 1951), 16-20.

About 120 students in college listened to the same lecture. The mean scores in the group that heard and saw the lecturer were better than those of the students who only heard it. This was true immediately after the lecture and two weeks later.

Nichols, Ralph G. "Listening: Questions and Problems" Quarterly Journal of Speech, 33 (February, 1947), 83-86.

Has value because of the factors which merit further study, which he lists as: 1. Urgent Questions; 2. Problems in Measurement; 3. Studies in Correlation; 4. Studies in Causal Factors.

Nichols, Ralph G. "Needed Research in Listening," The Journal of Communication, I (May, 1951), 48-50.

Five generalizations can be safely made: (1) Reading and listening seem to be approximately equally efficient media of learning. (2) Reading and listening are closely related skills. The coefficients of correlation are plus .7. (3) Variations in the rate of assimilation do not significantly

III. RESEARCH STUDIES IN PERIODICALS (continued)

alter the comparative efficiency of the two processes. (4) Almost all students are afflicted with a number of bad listening habits. (5) Effective listeners possess and practice certain specific skills.

Rankin, Paul T. "The Importance of Listening Ability," English Journal (College Edition), 17 (October, 1928), 623-30.

The records of the waking time in a total of sixty days of 21 different adults were analyzed from the point of view of type of communicative activity. Oral language was found to be used very much more than written language. Listening, or the ability to understand spoken language, is the most frequently used of the language arts. The present emphasis on the four language arts in the school as measured by the relative time allotments is inversely proportional to the frequency of their use in life. The evidence points to the probable need of greater attention in the school to oral language, and particularly to the ability to comprehend oral language (listening).

Rulon, Philip J., et al. "A Comparison of Phonographic Recordings with Printed Materials in Terms of Knowledge Gained through Their Use Alone," Harvard Educational Review, 13 (January, 1943), 63-76.

Rulon compared knowledge gained from phonographic recordings and printed matter. For initial recall, the printed page was superior; but a week later the difference was immaterial. Rulon thought that recordings might have been superior had recall tests been given subsequently.

Russell, R. D. "A Comparison of Two Methods of Learning," Journal of Educational Research, 18 (1928), 235-238.

Russell found that 5th grade students profited much more from the auditory presentation than from the visual, while on the 7th grade level the relative effectiveness of the two methods is practically equal. On the 9th grade level a slight advantage appears in favor of the visual presentation.

Stanton, Frank N. "Memory for Advertising Copy Presented Visually vs. Orally," Journal of Applied Psychology, 17 (February, 1954), 45-64.

Stanton found that the auditory method was more effective. An interesting piece of work by the man who eventually become president of the Columbia Broadcasting Company.

IV. SUMMARIES OF RESEARCH IN LISTENING

1. Shane, Harold G. "Are You Listening?" Chapter 8 in Research Helps in Teaching the Language Arts. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1955.

2. Caffrey, John. "Auding," Chapter IV in Review of Educational Research, 30: 2 (April, 1955), 121-138.

3. Lewis, Thomas R. "Listening," Chapter II in Review of Educational Research, 27 (April, 1958), 89-95.

Reports of Achievements in IR with No Comparisons with AG Groups

Boney, C. DeWitt, and Agnew, Kate. "Periods of Awakening or Reading Readiness," Elementary English Review, 14 (May, 1937), 183-187.
Less advanced group appeared to do better with the individual reading which was used exclusively after April of first grade. Under IR from then on, only 3 of 20 were below third grade level at the end of third year.

Bruce, Percy W. "Individualized Reading in Action," Reading in Action, IRA Conference Proceedings, 1957, pp. 146-148.
Over a period of years the sixth grades in the author's school under IR have scored 8.7 in reading by early fall of school year.

Burger, I. Victor. Bringing Children and Books Together. New York: Library Club of America, Inc., 1956.
Studied 352 fifth graders who had at least two hours of IR a week. In October, 23.7 per cent had normal or above reading age. By April, 58.9 per cent had reached normal level or above.

Burrows, Alvina T. "Caste System or Democracy in Teaching Reading," Elementary English, 27 (March, 1950), 145-148.
In a six-week trial period with IR in a fifth grade the smallest gain was two months; the largest gain was three years. Median gain for the class was a full year.

Carson, Louise G. "Moving Toward Individualization--A Second Grade Program," Elementary English, 34 (October, 1957), 362-366.
Reports that a second grade with an average IQ of 106 gained, on the average, 12.2 months' growth in reading under IR during a school year.

Crossley, Ruth, and Kniley, Mildred. "An Individualized Reading Program," Elementary English, 36 (January, 1959), 16-20.
Reports a third grade under IR made an average gain in reading of 1.6 years.

Cyrog, Frances. "The Principal and His Staff Move Forward in Developing New Ways of Thinking about Reading," California Journal of Elementary Education, 27 (February, 1959), 178-192.
Reports that after three years under IR a fifth grade class of normal intelligence achieved 6.2 reading grade level.

Dean, Ray B. "A Plan for Individual Reading in the Intermediate Grades," National Elementary Principal, 17 (July, 1938), 557-563.
Says, "not infrequently a child will raise his reading level as much as two full grades in one year" under IR.

Dickhart, Audrey. "Breaking the Lock-Step in Reading," Elementary English, 35 (January, 1958), 54-56.
Report of first grade under IR. At end of year 12 pupils were reading at second, third, or fourth grade levels; 8 were at first grade level; 4 were at primer level; and one was at preprimer level.

Dickinson, Marie. "Through Self-Selection to Individualizing Reading Procedures," California Journal of Elementary Education, 27 (February, 1959), 150-177.
Reports a fourth grade class that gained 1.7 years in reading comprehension and 1.4 years in vocabulary under IR from October to May.

Evans, N. Dean. "Ann Individualized Reading Program for the Elementary Teacher," Elementary English, 30 (May, 1953), 275-280.
IR "results in consistently large amounts of material being read."

Fannin, Lois. "Reading for the Bright Child," Bulletin of the School Library Association of California, March, 1949, 2027-29.
Studied grades 5 and 6 who had IR once a week. After 8 months the progress made by IR group was greater in "directly measurable areas" than was progress of group without IR.

Fay, Leo C. "Improving the Teaching of Reading by Teacher Experimentation, " Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, 34:No. 5 (September, 1958), Chapter 4.
Reports that the average gain of a fifth grade under IR for a school year was 1.15 years.

Gumlick, Helen R. "Individualizing the Reading Program in the Primary Grades," National Elementary Principal, 18 (July, 1939), 549-558.
Reports the results of the use of IR by 24 classes. "Most pupils grew remarkably in ability to read independently. Most showed considerably more than a year's growth in their reading ages."

Harris, Melva. "Beginning Reading without Readers," Childhood Education, 26 (December, 1949), 164-167.

Hildreth, Gertrude, and Wright, Josephine L. Helping Children to Read. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940.
Eighteen pupils given IR for 3 weeks. One gained four weeks of reading growth. One raised his level from a preprimer to second grade. Another advanced from first grade to third. One gained more in three weeks than in two previous years. Another gained four months.

Jenkins, Marian. "Here's to Success in Reading--Self-Selection Helps," Childhood Education, 32 (November, 1955), 124-131.
Samples are given of achievement of "less able" children in a combination grade 5-6 class in California. Between October and June they gained an average of 1.2 years in reading.

Johnson, Eula A. "Techniques of Evaluating Growth In and Through Reading in the Primary Grades: Evaluating Growth Through Reading in Hamilton County, Tennessee," Cooperative Efforts in Schools to Improve Readings, Proceedings of Conference on Reading, University of Chicago, 1942, pp. 279-283.
Reports in first grade under IR "at the end of the year every child was reading a second reader."

Johnson, Mabel L. "Individualizing Reading Experiences, "New York State Education, 38, (June, 1951), 654-655.
Reports a fifth grade under IR that gained 1.7 years of reading growth in one year.

Kingsley, Marjorie. "An Experiment in Individualized Reading," Elementary English, 35 (February, 1958), 113-118.
Reports that a sixth grade under IR gained 9.5 month in reading growth in 8 months of teaching.

Largent, Mary. "Thanks to an Individualized Reading Plan, My Third Graders are Eager Readers", NEA Journal, 48 (March, 1959), 64-65.
Reports that a third grade gained 11 months in reading under IR from October to May.

Loomis, Mary J. An Appraisal of a Functional Reading Program in an Elementary School. Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1939.
Reports a study of 81 children who used IR from kindergarten to grade 6. Mean reading levels at the different grade levels were as follows: grade 1 - 1.5; grade 2 - 2.9; grade 3 - 4.4; grade 4 - 5.5; grade 5 - 7.0 and grade 6 - 9.0. At grade six these children had an average mental age of 12.6 years.

McHugh, Walter J. "Team Learning in Skill Subjects in Intermediate Grades," Journal of Education, 142 (December, 1959), 22-51.
Reported that the high achievers in 35 classes in grades 4, 5, and 6 were given IR (self-correcting and self-directing exercises). Only significant improvement in gain over previous year was for grade 6.

McVey, Marcia. "Reading Sure Is Fun Now," Elementary English, 37 (May, 1960), 307-309.
Reports that in a grade 6 class "superior readers" gained from at least one year's to two years' growth. Slower readers' "reading improved to the point where most were working to their capacity."

Marcatante, J. "The Programmatic Fallacy and Individualized Reading," High Points, 42 (May, 1960), 47-50.
Describes an IR program in an adjustment class. The author saw his pupils gain reading skills he believed no other type of program could have yielded.

Newton, Nellie. "Individualizing Reading in the Sixth Grade," Elementary English, 24 (February, 1944), 43.
Reports that students under IR "who rated third grade level had advanced to fifth grade level in one year."

Picozzi, Adelaide. "An Approach to Individualized Reading," Elementary English, 35 (May, 1958), 302-304.
Report of teacher who began IR after Christmas with her third grade. Says reading growth was "amazing" and that total number of books read was "astonishing."

Robinson, Ruth. Why They Love to Learn. Charlotte, N.C.: Heritage Printers, 1960.
Reports an IR program begun in North Carolina in 1950. At present 16,000 pupils are under IR. In 1959, pupils in grade 1 were 13 months above the national norm of the California Achievement Battery: Reading. Pupils in grade 3 were also 13 months above the national norm. In grade 6 the pupils were 12 months above the national norm.

Rollins, Kaye. "How Do I Begin an Individualized Reading Program?" Education, 82 (September, 1961), 36-38.
Reports for a sixth grade using IR, "greater growth in reading skills and vocabulary."

Safford, Alton L. "Evaluation of an Individualized Reading Program," Reading Teacher, 13 (April, 1960), 266-270.
Reports the majority of the pupils under IR he studied made less than average gains during one year. No significant differences were found between gains of "superior" or "average" groups.

Schnidt, Ethel. "I Used Individual Instruction," Reading Teacher, 5 (September, 1951), 7-9.
Reports that a first grade with amedian IQ of 98 gained 1.8 years' reading growth in one year under IR. At the end of second grade they had attained 2.7 years of growth.

Schnitzer, Eunice E. "An Individualized Reading Program," University of Kansas Bulletin of Education, 15:No. 2 (Winter, 1961), pp. 59-63.
Reports that 26 sixth grade pupils made reading gains from 8 months to 26 months in 7 months under IR.

Sharpe, Maide W. "Individualized Reading Program, "Elementary English, 35 (Dece. 1958), 507-512.
Reports a second grade made .6 year's growth in reading in three months under

Sibley, Martha. "Individual Reading Method Adapted, to the Grade Readers for Work Type Reading, "Educational Administration and Supervision, 15 (September, 1959), 441-447.
Reports that in a third grade under IR the mean attainment at the "middle of the year" approached the "standard or expected attainment for the end of the year."

Thompson, Mildred. "Why Not Try Self-Selection?" Elementary English, 33 (December, 1956), 486-490.
Report of an administrator of a California school district. Reports that in an eighth grade class all the students gained at least one year in reading under IR. All had average or above average intelligence.

Van Allen, Robert. "Ceilings Unlimited: Initiating Reading through Creative Writing," San Diego County Curriculum Journal, January, 1957, (entire issue).
Reports that with the language-experience approach, where pupils use IR, "word counts show the vocabulary used to be three to four times as great as in the basic reading series." This makes the reading from these texts easy. First grade pupils are reported to read 15 to 20 preprimers a month.

Vite, Irene. "A Primary Teacher's Experience," Individualizing Reading Practices (Alice Meil, editor). New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.
Reports that a first grade under IR had an average reading age that was 12 months higher than their average chronological age.

Warford, Phyllis. "Individualized Reading in First Grade," Elementary English, 37 (January, 1960), 36-37.
Report of the reading gains of 15 children in grade 1 under IR. Nine finished the year between reading grade level 3.2 and 3.75; 3 between 3.0 and 3.22; and 3 between 2.4 and 2.5.

Young, Elizabeth. "Individualized Reading in Action," Reading in Action, IRA Conference Proceedings, 1957, pp. 144-145.
Reports that in a fifth grade under IR the minimum reading achievement gain for any child was 12 months.

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Comparisons of Individualized (IR) and Ability - Grouping (AG) Approaches as to Reading Achievement

Donahue, Dorothy L. An Experiment in Individualized Reading in an Unselected, Heterogeneous Sixth Grade Class. Master's Thesis, Central Connecticut State College, 1961.
This study reports that after 9 months students under IR gained 16 months in reading while those under AG gained 6 months.

Ellingson, Ruby. An Individualized Approach to Reading in a Specific Fourth Grade. Master's Thesis, Mankato (Minnesota) State College, 1962.
This study compared 24 pupils under IR with 26 under AG for 8 months. The average gain in reading for the former group was 12 months, for the latter, 7.7 months.

Gresham, LaVerne P. An Experimental Study of the Efficacy of Individualized Teaching of Reading in Comparison to the Basal-Textbook Method. Master's Thesis, Northwestern State College of Louisiana, 1960.
Compared the gains in reading for fifth-graders under IR and AG after 4 months. Average gain of IR group was 8 months, of AG group, 3 months.

Persig, Elsie A. A Study of the Individualization of a Reading Program to Meet the Needs and Interests of a Specific Group of Sixth Graders. Master's Thesis, Mankato (Minnesota) State College, 1959.
This study compared 130 pupils under IR and AG for 8 months. Average gain in reading for the IR groups was 14.4 months, for the AG groups, 9.1 months.

Pollach, Samuel. Meeting the Individual Reading Needs of Children in the Intermediate Grades. Master's Thesis, University of California, Los Angeles, 1959.
Reported here is the study of reading growth in 235 pupils for 5 months. The groups of pupils in the study under IR gained as much in reading as the groups under AG.

Roston, Sylvia W. An Individualized Reading Program in a First and Second Grade. Master's Thesis, National College of Education, 1962.
This study compared the achievement of superior pupils, 23 under IR and 18 under AG, for 10 months. No significant differences in gains in reading were found between the two groups.

Walker, Clare C. An Evaluation of Two Programs of Reading in Grades Four, Five, and Six of the Elementary School. Ed.D. Dissertation, New York University, 1957.
The results of a statistical analysis of this study indicated that there were no significant differences in the gains in reading skills between the IR and AG approaches.

Wiggins, Evelyn L. A Comparative Study of the Textbook and Self-Selection Methods of Reading Instruction in a Sixth Grade Class. Master's Thesis, Utah State University, 1958.
This study compared 30 pupils under IR and AG for 4.5 months. The average gain in reading for those under the former was 15 months, and for those under the latter, 13 months.

Reports of Achievements in IR with No Comparisons with AG Groups

Criqui, Orvel A. A Study of the Teaching of Individualized Reading in the Eighth Grade Class of Grainfield, Kansas. Master's Thesis, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, 1954.
This study reports that in 9 months 24 pupils under IR gained from 7.8 to 8.8 months in reading ability.

Edwards, Edith. Initiating and Developing a Program of Individualized Reading in the Fourth Grade. Master's Thesis, Adelphi College, 1959.
The 23 pupils in this study gained 13 months in reading while under IR for 10 months.

Hart, John D. A Study of an Individualized Reading Program in a Sixth Grade. Master's Thesis, Cornell University, 1959.
The 27 pupils in this study gained 7 months in reading while under IR for 6 months.

Kool, Johanna. A Study of a Multi-Level Reading Program at the Second Grade Level. Master's Thesis, Nebraska State Teachers College, Wayne, 1962.
This study reports the use of IR (SRA Reading Laboratory) on a part-time basis along with the use of basal readers. In 7 months 20 pupils gained 16 months in reading achievement.

Oser, William H. A Critical Analysis of an Experiment in Individualized Reading as Developed by an Educational Consultant and a Reading Staff. Master's Thesis, Sacramento State College, 1956.
Studied 81 pupils under IR in grades 5 through 8 for 7 months. During this period the fifth graders gained 7.0 months in reading; the sixth graders 7.5 months; the seventh graders 9.3 months; the eighth graders 6.1 months.

Parker, Ethel T. An Experimental Study of Individualized Reading on the Sixth Grade Level. M. Ed. Thesis, Northwestern State College of Louisiana, 1959.
Found that 35 pupils under IR for 6 months made an average gain in reading of 15 months.

Rohm, Emma L. A Study of Individualized Reading in First Grade. Master's Thesis, Wisconsin State College, Oshkosh, 1962.
Reported that over a 9 weeks period 27 children gained 6 months in reading ability under IR.

Wood, Ruth V. How Individual Differences Among Middle-Grade Pupils Are Provided for in Basic Reading Instruction within the Class in Westside Elementary School. Master's Thesis, Northwestern State College of Louisiana, 1957.
Found that 37 fifth-grade pupils under IR for 8 months gained 16 months in reading achievement.

Bibliography

TEACHING LOAD OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Compiled by Ingrid Strom

for the Committee on Research of the

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

with an Introduction by Margaret Early

Problems of Teaching Load

Most teachers of English believe that quality of instruction is directly related to class size. Embracing this opinion, the National Council of Teachers of English, in such statements as The National Interest and the Teaching of English, has vigorously recommended that secondary school teachers of English be assigned no more than one hundred students daily.[1] To dramatize this recommendation, the Council published in 1962 an "Honor Roll of Schools Reducing Teacher Load in English."

Many schools have not yet attained the recommended goal. Some observers have pointed out that it is impossible of attainment because the student population is expanding at a much faster rate than the number of qualified teachers. Moreover, some observers question whether reducing teaching loads to one hundred students is an essential step in improving the quality of instruction. To counter the arguments of those who are not persuaded by theory, no matter how cogent, teachers and administrators look to research. There is a persistent demand at NCTE meetings for research which will "prove" that smaller teaching loads do in fact result in more effective teaching. When we want to win a case, it is natural to look for factual evidence in support of our opinions. It is the function of research to uncover factual evidence. But its function is "to prove" only in the sense of "to test." To put any hypothesis to a fair test means that we must be free of preconceived notions as to what the outcome of the test will be.

Theoretically, we should be able to find answers to any questions which we can define precisely, provided we have the tools -- the research design and procedures -- that can measure accurately the factors involved. Practically, we must realize that our research tools are simple and crude, and when we trim complex questions, like the one on teaching load, to the limitations of

[1] (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1961), pp. 89-98.

our measuring instruments, then our findings will be similarly limited. Sometimes research must be combined with logical analysis based on experience. While it is commendable to want to base our arguments on factual evidence, it may be more sensible to recognize the worth of sound opinion and rest our case on reason rather than upon research studies which are only partially conclusive.

Components of the Problem

How complex is the question of teaching load? It depends on what we want to find out. We can propose questions relating to teaching load which are rather simple to answer. We can determine what studies have been made; we can examine what aspects of the question these studies have attacked; we can judge how well the questions were pursued and how accurately the findings were interpreted. If the studies are limited, we can speculate as to why and how and if they might have been made more penetrating. This is a task which Ingrid Strom has undertaken; her annotated bibliography follows. Dr. Strom's bibliography is really part of an historical study which describes the interest in teaching load in the recent past, and which evaluates the results of the studies which have been made.

If we are more interested in current practice and opinion than in the findings of past studies, we might raise another kind of question that would be fairly easy to answer: What do English teachers think would be an appropriate teaching load? We already have opinions from respected sources, and we do not necessarily enhance an opinion by multiplying it. It might be valuable, of course, to know what a large sample of teachers really think about the matter of class size. We have been assuming that this is a major factor in teachers' attitudes toward their effectiveness when, in fact, they may be more concerned about the kinds of classes assigned to them, or their extracurricular assignments, or problems of obtaining materials, or the attitudes of other subject matter teachers towards instruction in English. Is the recommendation of reduced teaching loads a too simple answer likely to occur to opinion leaders before it strikes the mass of teachers? Although we are interested in what teachers think, we must admit that the answers to this particular question might add only part of the information we need for a basic understanding of what constitutes an optimum teaching load.

The Problems of Time

We could ask another question: How is teacher load related to the way English teachers spend their time and energies? This is by no means a simple question. It would cost a great deal of money to answer it. We would have to have a stratified sample because we would want to know: Are there differences in the time expended by English teachers at various grade levels and under different types of curricular organization? For example, do block-time and core teachers in junior high school spend less, or more, time in out-of-class responsibilities than "straight" English teachers in grade 11 or 12? Among subgroups of English teachers, how much time is spend in:

a. teaching English classes
b. teaching classes other than English
c. supervising study halls
d. preparing lesson plans
e. preparing and scoring tests
f. grading compositions
g. extracurricular assignments
h. committees
i. routine school tasks
j. inservice courses
k. pupil conferences

Are there differences in time expended for various tasks among teachers in rural, suburban, city schools? What effect does homogeneous grouping have upon teachers' use of time? For example, does the teacher with five tenth grade classes spend less time in preparation than the teacher of one class at each of four grade levels? What differences are there among teachers of various years' experience?

If we were to conduct a questionnaire study, we should really be asking "How do teachers think they spend their time and energy?" Again, we would have opinions as answers, not factual evidence. We could get factual evidence only by careful observations and records of the activities of particular teachers in our stratified sample. This procedure would be enormously expensive, and we would have to weigh its values against its cost.

Do we need such evidence? Perhaps we are really interested in the time required for typical tasks, such as theme correction. Dusel's study offers useful data on how long it takes to correct themes,[2] but is theme correction the only aspect of the English teacher's role which is affected by numbers of students? There are other tasks -- lesson planning, preparation of materials such as tests and exercises, study of literature, evaluation of books, films and recordings, pupil conferences, extracurricular duties -- that are also a part of teaching load. How does class size affect these? Does it take more time to plan a lecture for 35 than for 20? Or to plan a lesson that allows for differences in rate and kind of learning for 25 or 35? When we limit our interpretation of load to theme correction, we are again arguing from an unverified assumption -- that improvement in students' writing depends upon how much they write and how much time teachers spend in correcting what they write.

Nevertheless, the fact that theme correction takes time that is directly affected by class size is irrefutable, and Dusel's findings are worth quoting when the question of class size is debated.

Studies of Individual Teachers and Schools

Case studies often uncover details that might otherwise not occur to an investigator in evolving a research design. Such studies do not "prove" anything. They do not test hypotheses. Insofar as they reveal trends and patterns, they enlarge the body of knowledge from which research theories or hypotheses are derived.

Selecting cases to be studied cannot be done haphazardly, nor with a view to proving a preconceived idea. To prevent bias from distorting the picture, we should apply to the selection of cases techniques similar to those for choosing a sample for a survey. A case study approach would allow us to ask more searching questions of a relatively small group of English teachers than we could in a large survey. For example, we might study the methods used by teachers who have varying pupil loads. How many themes do they assign, how many do they correct and in what detail, how much time do they spend in preparing students to write? How do they teach composition, as well as other aspects of the curriculum? Are some teachers' methods more economical and effective than others'?

[2] William J. Dusel, "Determining an Efficient Teaching Load in English," Illinois English Bulletin, March, 1956.

Still another means of uncovering evidence related to teaching load would be to apply case study methods in comparing schools where the load is set at 100 pupils and schools where the load is 150 pupils or more. Chiefly by observation and interview techniques, the investigator might determine differences in (a) the amount of writing assigned, and the types of assignments; (b) ways of organizing instruction; (c) methods of teaching; (d) students' achievements; (e) teachers' attitudes and morale. It would be difficult to obtain objective data on these points, especially the last one. Nevertheless, case studies of different school situations would offer valuable insights, provided that the schools were carefully selected and all pertinent factors carefully investigated. The results of this expensive, time-consuming investigation might not settle any arguments, but perhaps they would dramatize the futility of approaching a complex problem by attempting to raise a simple one-dimensional question. More than this, however, case studies might suggest a variety of ways of arriving at desirable teaching loads other than by the single device of reducing the number of students to one hundred.

Some Variables

When teachers and administrators ask for research on teaching load, they are really asking for conclusive answers to the question: What is the effect of class size on the quality of instruction? They are asking for a scientific experimental study so tightly controlled that it would isolate the single factor of class size. Many students of educational research would deny that strict scientific methods of investigation could be applied to a problem that embraces so many variables. Even a crude experimental study is difficult to achieve. Consider the variables to be controlled if we are to define an "experimental" and "control" population. These two populations would have to be fairly equally matched in capacity to learn, achievement in reading and composition at the beginning of the experiment, levels of aspiration, socioeconomic background, and previous educational experience. Similarly, teachers of the control and experimental groups should be matched on such factors as experience, attitudes, special skills, and enthusiasm for teaching and for the experiment. Probably the best way to control the teacher variable would be to have the same teachers alternately teach the experimental and control classes so that comparisons could be made, for example, between four classes of 25 taught by teacher A and five classes of 35 taught by teacher A. (And we might well ask whether teacher A is really the same teacher in such different circumstances.)

What do we mean by "quality of instruction"? At present we can only judge quality of instruction by the achievement of students. And achievement in English is notoriously hard to measure except in the most mechanical aspects of language learning. We guess that class size has a more marked effect on students' achievement in writing than in any other phase of English. This type of achievement is the most difficult of all to measure, especially over so short a period as a year. Assuming that it were possible to measure a year's growth in writing, could we attribute growth, or lack of it, to a single year's experience, or a single teacher's efforts? And what about growth in other aspects, in appreciation of literature, for example, or in speech?

Class size, then, is only one factor. What changes in student achievement and what changes in teachers' attitudes and morale might occur by altering the teaching-learning situation, not in terms of class size, but in such factors as these: (a) secretarial services to the teacher; (b) consultant help; (c) lay readers; (d) teachers' extracurricular responsibilities; (e) team teaching;

(f) teachers' aides? Or take another variable in the teaching situation: What is the effect on teaching efficiency when a teacher's load consists of four fairly equivalent classes compared to four classes of widely divergent abilities or levels of development?

To some, the above statements will seem like a negative approach to the problem of teaching load. On the contrary, they are a positive approach because they ask some of the important questions -- questions which require a whole series of related studies. To get clear-cut answers to such questions would require highly sophisticated research techniques as well as sensitive measures of learning. Indeed, no single study could attack all the questions inherent in the debate on teaching load. The solution to the problem is not to stop asking questions but to withhold judgment until, bit by bit, the results of coordinated large-scale research studies are available to us. In the meantime, the best expenditure of time and energy by English departments and associations of English teachers may be to

- study the references on teaching load given in the accompanying bibliography;
- experiment informally with other means of reducing teaching load, in addition to, or alternatively with, cutting class size;[3]
- experiment with some of the other variables mentioned in this report;
- report effective procedures, not as research, but as experiences that may stimulate and enrich teaching.

[3] See suggestions in Honor Roll of Schools Reducing Teaching Load in English (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1963).

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STUDIES OF TEACHING LOAD OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN THE UNITED STATES

Bowers, Elizabeth M., and Norris, Ruby L. "Study of Teacher Load of Teachers of English in Virginia," Virginia Association of Teachers of English Bulletin, School Year 1958-1959. Richmond, Va.: Section of the Virginia Education Association.
An analysis of questionnaires completed by teachers of English in Virginia indicated, as reported by Bowers and Norris, two major conditions that made it impossible for English teachers to perform their central duty, teaching English: theme assignments were prohibited by the number of pupils assigned; teachers' time and energy were dissipated by the diverse activities in which teachers were forced to engage.

Bowers, Elizabeth M., and Norris, Ruby L. "Teachers of English Make Study of Teacher Load," Virginia Journal of Education, 53 (April, 1960), 28-29.
Important facts brought out by the questionnaires elicited from Virginia English teachers by Bowers and Norris were: (1) 58 percent of the teachers

had a daily pupil load of 121 to 160; (2) one-half of the teachers had classes also in subject fields unrelated to English; (3) 87 percent of the teachers indicated that they spent from one to ten hours weekly out of school in preparation; (4) 74 percent of the teachers spent from one to ten hours weekly in reading examinations, exercises, and themes; (5) 92 percent reported that clerical work in connection with class organization required one to ten hours per week.

Davidson, Gene E., and Haugh, Oscar M. "Load of English Teachers in Kansas," The Kansas Teacher, 62 (May, 1954), 18-36.
Studying the teaching load of English teachers in Kansas, Davidson and Haugh found handicaps under which many teachers were working: most of the teachers taught English in combination with some other subject; the average English teacher had three to four different preparations daily.

Douglass, Harl R. "Applying the Revised Douglass Formula for Measuring Load of High School Teachers," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 36 (October, 1952), 66-68.
Douglass defined a teaching load unit as the time required of a typical teacher in teaching and in preparation for an average class of 25 students for one period of 45 minutes. (In the May 1951 Bulletin, he calculated one unit as approximately 84 minutes.) He listed the following subject coefficients for grades 9-12: 1.1 for English, science, and history and other social studies; 1.0 for foreign language, household arts, commercial skill subjects, art, and mathematics; 0.9 for shop subjects, music, and physical education.

Douglass, Harl R. "Tentative Norms for High School Teaching Load Based Upon the Revised Douglass Teaching Load Formula," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 37 (December, 1953), 13.
On the basis of 90 as the average number of minutes spent daily per English class period at grade 9 and 94 minutes as the average at grades 10,11, and 12, Douglass derived the grade coefficient of 1.1 for both groups.

Douglass,Harl R., and Rowe, Jack L. "Median Teacher Loads for Junior High Schools Based Upon the Revised Douglass Teaching Load Formula," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 39 (November, 1955), 34-37.
This study, based upon the calculation of 2,656 teachers representing 96 junior high schools of grades 7, 8, and 9, showed that the median teacher load for small junior high schools was nearly 30 Douglass units and for the large junior high schools approximately 27 and that English ranked first in the tentative norms of teaching load by subject field in the junior high school.

Dusel, William. "Determining an Efficient Teaching Load in English," California English Bulletin, March 15, 1956.
Made with the goal of determining what is involved in teaching the basic communication skills and how much time is required to teach such skills efficiently to pupils of normal intelligence under classroom conditions, this study, sponsored by the California Council of Teachers of English and reported by Dusel, concluded that English teachers needed smaller and fewer classes and more time scheduled for marking compositions if pupils were to be ensured proficiency in writing their native language.

Eurich, Alvin C. "Schools Need More Than Money," The Nation, May 10, 1958, pp. 145,404, 405-406, as quoted in The Great Debate: Our Schools in Crisis by C. Winfield Scott, Clyde M. Hill, and Hobart W. Burns. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1959.
Questioning the assumption that effective teacher-pupil load is one teacher to 30 pupils at the elementary school level and one for every 25 in the secondary school grades, Eurich suggested that, instead of adhering inflexibly to old formulas, we should apply our inventiveness to define and then provide the optimum conditions for learning for each student.

Ford, Paul M. "A Different Day for the English Teacher," English Journal, 50 (May, 1961), 334-337.
Ford reported the success of an English teaching team at Wayland High School, Wayland, Massachusetts, because of the use of a flexible schedule, technological aids, and lay workers.

Ford, Paul M. "Lay Readers in the High School Composition Program: Some Statistics," English Journal, 50 (November, 1961), 522-528.
A study of the lay reader program effected at Newton, Massachusetts, prompted Ford to report that teachers aided by contract correctors were, for the most part, extremely enthusiastic about the project.

Fitzpatrick, Edward A. "Small Classes and Educational Efficiency," American School Board Journal, 138 (March, 1959), 50.
Fitzpatrick reported research projects that do not support small classes and concluded that class size has little or nothing to do with educational efficiency as measured in terms of pupil achievement.

Fitzpatrick, Edward A. "The Teacher-Pupil Ratio," American School Board Journal, 137 (December, 1958),44.
Since educational history in the first half of the 20th century has shown that the supply of teachers increased at a substantially greater rate than the enrollment of pupils, Fitzpatrick concluded that the publicized general shortage of teachers is due not primarily to the failure of the supply but to the change of teacher-pupil ratio.

Grant, Alice L. "Tired Teachers Cheat Children," Illinois English Bulletin, 45 (May, 1958), 1-19.
After analyzing the questionnaires completed by 1,000 teachers of English from 296 secondary schools in Illinois, Grant learned that 53 percent of the teachers taught English only; that 47 percent taught English and one or more other subjects; that the typical English teacher taught five classes daily, four of which were in English; that the average teacher taught 116 students each day, 108 of whom were in English classes; and that the average number of students in each class was 27.

Johnson, Robert H., and Lobb, M. Delbert. "Jefferson County, Colorado, Completes Three-Year Study of Staffing, Changing Class Size, Programming, and Scheduling," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 45 (January, 1961), 57-58.
Johnson and Lobb investigated promising ways of improving instruction and utilizing the staff in the secondary schools and reached the conclusion that the size of class does not make any significant difference upon the achievement and attitudes of learners.

McLeod, Frederick R., et al. Report of the Jackson County (Missouri) Teachers of English Committee on Teacher Load, June, 1960 (mimeographed).
From the responses to a questionnaire sent by Jackson County English teachers to county teachers in other subject areas, McLeod inferred that teachers of other subjects attached much importance to the mastery of English and were willing to see action taken to make it possible for English teaching to achieve its goals. The following recommendations evolved from this study: the total teaching load of the English teacher should be limited to a maximum of 100 students; as far as possible, the extra assignments of English teachers should be curtailed.

Norton, Monte S. Teaching Load in Nebraska High Schools in Cities from 5000 to 25,000 Population. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1959.
Norton, prompted by his findings that the teaching load for English teachers was the second highest in the group studied, recommended that a comprehensive and systematic study be made of each teacher's assignments by means of a formula (such as the Douglass formula) which measured objectively the total load of the teacher.

Ross, Donald H., and McKenna, Bernard. Class Size: The Multi-Million Dollar Question, Metropolitan School Study Council, Institute of Administrative Research. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955. 24 pp.
That the past research on effects of class size does not present any clear-cut findings is a misconception was reported by Ross and McKenna, who found that the number of studies favoring small over large classes gave a ratio of two to one and a ratio of five to one if only those projects that met minimum standards for experimental procedure were considered. Some conclusions made as the result of the acceptable studies reviewed follow: high school classes that were small by design tended to have more variety in instructional methods used than did large classes; more attention to individuals was apt to be found in smaller classes.

Shellhammer, Thomas A. "Can We Lengthen the Work Week of High School Teachers?" Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 39 (November, 1955), 52-57.
Questionnaires sent by Shellhammer to secondary school teachers and principals in California indicated that teachers of language arts and social studies worked longer weeks than teachers in other subject fields.

Shellhammer, Thomas A. "Work Week of the Secondary-School Teacher," California Journal of Secondary Education, 32 (May, 1957), 304.
As the result of interviewing teachers and principals, Shellhammer discovered that language arts teachers spent more time than did teachers in other subject fields in correcting and marking student work, that principals were aware of this situation, and that the time spent by teachers in performing clerical duties tended to increase as schools became larger.

Squire, James R., et al. English Language Arts in California Public High Schools, Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXVI, No. 7 (September, 1957). 41 pp.
Concerning the California teacher-load study, Squire stated that the largest number of schools had English-class enrollments in the range

of 31-35 pupils, that there were 479 English classes larger than 40, and that English teachers in 17 schools instructed more than 200 students daily.

Squire, James R., et al. The National Interest and the Teaching of English. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1961. 140 pp.
Teachers of English realized that their teaching had not been as effective as it should have been, although some high school graduates showed real competence in reading and writing. They also knew, asserted Squire, that many of them had been working under such difficult conditions, chief of which was the load, that the possibility of genuine effectiveness was precluded.

Strom, Ingrid M. Teaching Load of Teachers of English in Indiana, Bloomington, Ind.: Division of Research and Field Services of Indiana University, Vol 32, No. 3 (May, 1956)
In her study of Indiana English teachers, which helps to explain why English teachers do not provide more writing experiences for their pupils, Strom found that the average teacher had five classes daily (three or four in English), spent much of her school day in cocurricular activities, had one free period daily, felt she was able to correct 57 themes of 250-500 words weekly, and was without secretarial services.